

THE  
**Saturday**



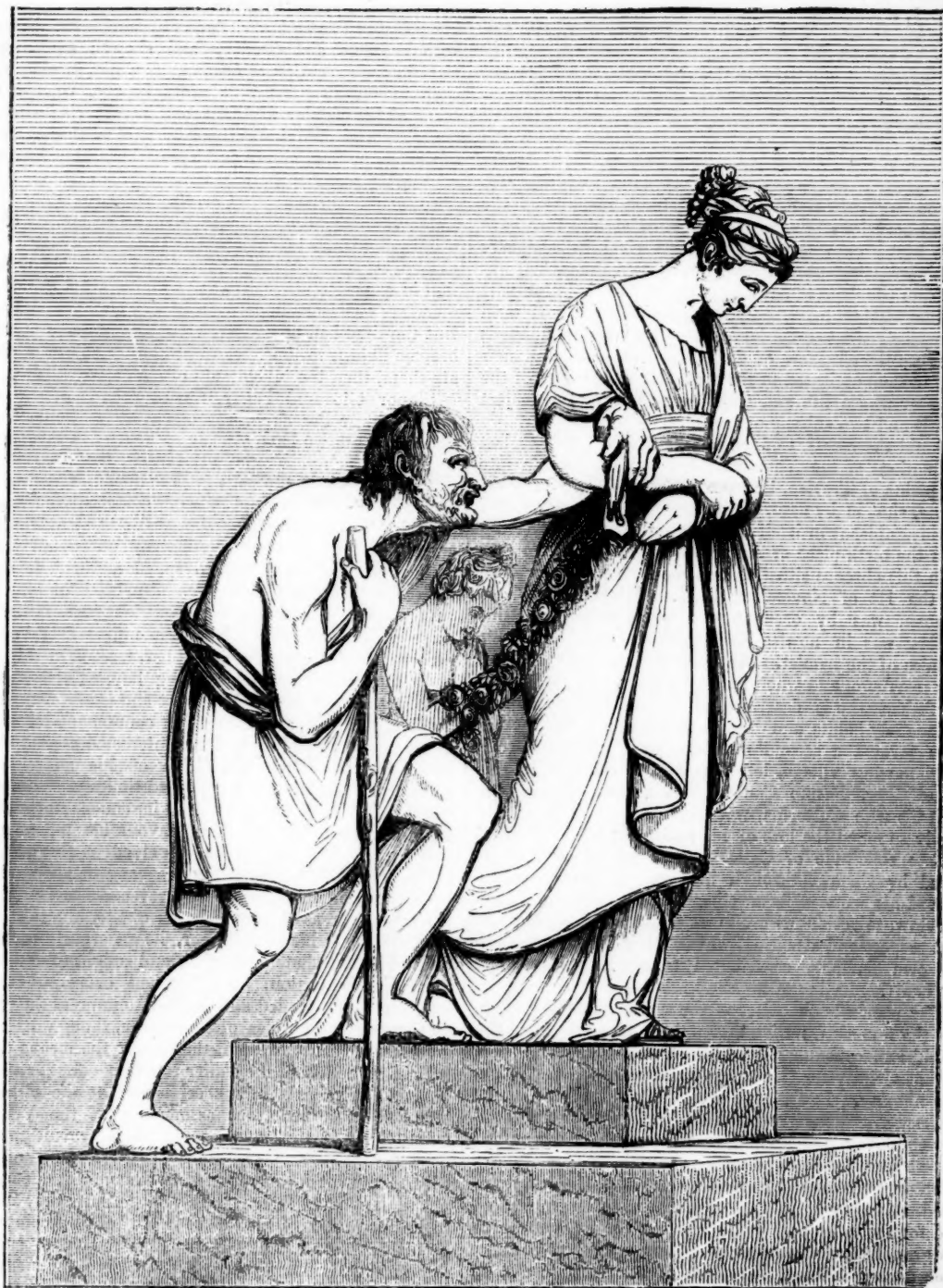
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BENEFICENCE, BY CANOVA

## CANOVA AND HIS WORKS.

## I.

ARCHITECTURE and Sculpture, in consequence of the intimate relations which subsist between them, have been represented as twin sisters; though in point of antiquity architecture must take the precedence of all the other fine arts. The period at which sculpture (in the ordinary sense of the word, as referring to representations of animated existence) began to be first practised, is unknown. But there has existed throughout its known history, a remarkable degree of harmony with the state of its sister art. The sculptured figures of Egypt and of India exhibit the same qualities of simple originality and ponderous dignity with the architectural monuments of those countries; the remains of Grecian art harmonize together in grace and beauty; and the boldness of Roman edifices expresses the same character with the gladiatorial figures and equestrian statues. The grand style of architecture of the middle ages met with its corresponding degree of excellence in statuary; and the varied beauties of the modern style of architecture have been kept pace with, through the revival in sculpture which has taken place almost in our own times.

From the days of Michael Angelo, to the latter part of the last century, sculpture gradually declined until it reached what may be called its second childhood; but here the advances of decay were checked, and new vigour communicated to the art by the appearance of the sculptor whose life and works are to form the subject of this and two subsequent articles.

Amid the recesses of those hills which form the last undulations of the Venetian Alps, as they subside into the plains of Treviso, lies the obscure village of *Possagno*, shut in by nature from general observation, and too insignificant in itself to merit notice except as having been the birth-place of Antonio Canova.

In this obscure situation was the future sculptor born on the 1st of November, 1757. His father, Pietro Canova, was by occupation a stone-cutter, and his mother was in nowise distinguished from the simple females of the hamlet. Antonio was the only child of this marriage, and when but three years of age, he lost his father, who is described as having been a man of melancholy habits, and weakly constitution. His mother soon formed a second marriage, and, removing to a neighbouring village, left Antonio to the care of his grandfather, Pasino Canova, also a stone-cutter, who, with his wife Catterina, watched over his infancy and amply supplied the loss of his real parents. The affectionate solicitude of Catterina was gratefully remembered by Canova through life; and, in after years, he proved his sense of former benefits, by taking her, then a widow, to reside with him at Rome, and paying her that respect and attention, which, while it did honour to his own feelings, contributed to the happiness and soothed the decline of his aged relative.

The romantic character of the scenery near Possagno, and the fine air from the mountains which refreshed the neighbouring country, led to the choice of several spots in that vicinity for the summer residences of the Venetian nobility. In the repairs and minor embellishments of these villas, the grandfather of Canova was occasionally employed, and he soon recommended himself among his patrons for his diligence and ingenuity. Canova often accompanied Pasino on these occasions, and exhibited, at a very early age, a decided taste for modelling, and for the more ornamental parts of the work on which his grandfather was engaged. The workshop became, even during infancy, his place of amusement; and so little interest did he take in the sports usual to childhood, that he became known among the youthful villagers as the *sullen Tonin*\*. Gentleness, rather than sullenness, however, was the characteristic of Canova, and it was

more congenial to his temper to seek recreation and instruction in the tales and ballads recited to him by his grandmother, than to join the noisy circle of his young compeers. Accordingly he was ever to be found in the workshop of his grandfather, or hanging at the side and listening to the legendary lore of his grandmother, who was sometimes sorely annoyed to find proofs of his attachment left in the shape of tiny hand-marks impressed in modelling-clay on various parts of her dress.

The grandfather of Canova was a self-taught artist, and considering the situation in which he was placed, his talents appear to have been far from despicable. He possessed some knowledge of architecture; designed with neatness and facility; and showed considerable taste in the execution of ornamental works in stucco and even in marble. At nine years of age, Canova was taken as his regular assistant, and before that time he had shown marked indications of skill in the execution of models in clay, and in fashioning the larger fragments of marble-cuttings into ornaments of various kinds. Two small shrines of Carrera marble, inlaid with coloured stones, are still preserved as specimens of his primitive labours in sculpture. Until his twelfth year Canova appears to have laboured at his humble occupation in complete obscurity, and to have made use of his moments of leisure in cultivating his taste for drawing. But the time had now arrived when his talents were to become known to those who were better able to appreciate them, than the inhabitants of his native village:

Signor Giovanni Falier, the proprietor of the *villa d'Asola*, near Possagno, was one of those noble Venetians of whom we have already spoken. He spent a few months of each year among the Alps, and was content to avail himself of the assistance of Pasino's skill in the repair of his villa, instead of sending for artists from the capital. The old man's good qualities had rendered him an especial favourite at the villa, and no season passed without his being invited to spend a few days there, even when there was little to require his labours. The young Canova now accompanied his grandfather on these visits, and soon became a universal favourite. "Few indeed," says his biographer, "could at this time know the amiable and unassuming boy, without feeling an affection for him. His light and graceful figure—his finely formed and expressive countenance, beaming at once with sensibility and fire, interested at first sight; while the unaffected simplicity of his address, the modest diffidence but not awkward timidity of his manner, his kindness of heart, and ingenuous disposition, could not fail to improve these favourable impressions."

Signor Falier thought he perceived in this youthful artist, talents that promised much; and believing that a little encouragement, and more extensive tuition, would elicit these, or, at all events, better qualify him to excel in the business of his grandfather, he generously took him under his immediate protection, and sought to obtain for him suitable tuition. An incident occurred at this juncture which tended still further to impress the patron of Canova with an idea of his talents, though it is not true, as generally related, that it was the means of his first introduction to the Falier family.

At a festival which was celebrated at the villa, and attended by a numerous assemblage of the Venetian nobility, the domestics had neglected to provide an ornament for the dessert, and did not discover their omission till the moment it was required to be supplied. Terrified at the thought of their master's displeasure, they applied to Pasino, who happened to be in the house, accompanied by his grandson. The old man was unable to suggest any remedy, but our young artist, seeing the necessity of the case, ordered some butter to be brought to him, and from that material presently carved a lion of such admirable proportions, and effective appearance, that it excited the attention and applause of all the company. An inquiry was made; the whole affair confessed,

\* *Tonin* is the provincial diminutive of *Antonio*.

and *Tonin Canova* declared the contriver of the ornament. Tonin was then called for, and was ushered into the brilliant assembly covered with blushes, and expecting a rebuke, instead of the warm approbation and kind caresses he met with.

It happened about this time that a Venetian sculptor of some eminence took up his abode in the neighbourhood of Possagno. This was *Giuseppe Bernardi*, surnamed *Toretto*, who withdrew to this retirement for a time in order to complete various works of embellishment on which he was engaged. Bernardi having been employed by the Falier family, was well known to them as a skilful artist, and was accounted worthy of the charge of instructing Canova; who was soon settled under his tuition, and recommended to the especial notice of his new master by the benevolent senator Falier. Bernardi, or as he is more generally called, Toretto, quickly discovered that his pupil possessed no ordinary talents; and while paying every attention to his charge, united the affection and esteem of a friend, with the discipline of a tutor.

Canova, from his early years to the latest period of his life, was remarkable for his unceasing industry: he did not trust to the native talent which he must have felt conscious of possessing, but applied himself earnestly and perseveringly to study. Many drawings and models are preserved by the Falier family, which exhibit his gradual improvement under Toretto. Two drawings in chalk, one representing a Venus, and the other a Bacchus, are much valued, as they were executed only a few days after their author had been placed with Toretto, and therefore show the degree of perfection which he had been able to attain under his grandfather's care. As the performances of a boy, not exceeding twelve years of age, these are said to discover considerable talent; being sketched in a bold style and with great correctness of outline.

The works, however, which at this period most delighted the friends of young Antonio, and which excited the utmost surprise in his master, were the models in clay of two angels, executed during a short absence from Toretto, and without assistance from any similar figures. These therefore were the first really original performances of our artist. They were finished in secrecy and haste, and then placed in a conspicuous situation in the workshop, against the expected return of Toretto. On his arrival, Canova watched the direction of his master's eyes with mingled hope and fear: at length they rested on these new creations of the trembling boy; and standing for a moment fixed in astonishment, he exclaimed, *Ecco un lavor veramente maraviglioso!* (This is in truth a most astonishing work!); and scarcely could he persuade himself that so perfect a work had been executed by his pupil.

Canova appears to have made his first essays in the representation of the human form in marble, when he had nearly attained his fourteenth year; but these performances were of a diminutive size, and merely undertaken as presents to his friends. Two of these statues, about a foot high, are still in the villa Falier. These attempts constituted his amusement and recreation from the more mechanical labours of his profession. Thus diligently employed, the time passed rapidly with our young artist, and through life he was accustomed to speak of this period as one of peculiar happiness. The family of his patron spent the winter in Venice; but the younger son, between whom and Canova a sincere friendship existed, was left at Possagno with a clergyman who conducted his education. In the company of the young Falier, and in visiting his grandmother and the good old Pasino, were spent every holiday, and every interval not devoted to study. The outlines of his character, such as with very little change it existed through life, were fully marked at this early period, and are thus described. "Open, sincere, ingenuous, he was himself

unconscious of dissimulation, and could hardly conceive deceit to exist in others. Full of vivacity in the society of his friends, he delighted them, at once by the originality of his observations, and by the native elegance of a delicate, though still untutored mind. Among strangers, from a natural timidity, which subsequent intercourse with mankind never entirely overcame, he was reserved, yet seldom failed to strike observers as possessing a mind of no ordinary stamp, or to fix those impressions, even on a casual interview, which common minds never leave."

Canova was sincerely anxious to excel in his profession, though as yet there was no definite intention that he should do more than follow the employment of his grandfather. But a period was now at hand, which was to decide his future prospects.

Toretto, who had now completed the engagements which for a period of nearly three years had detained him in the neighbourhood of Possagno, determined on re-establishing his residence at Venice: in a few months after returning thither he died, through the pressure of infirmities rather than of old age. Toretto evinced a sincere regard for Canova, in proof of which he declared him his son by adoption, with permission to bear the name; a privilege which was never made use of, and which, except as a pleasing mark of approbation, was productive of no advantage.

At the death of Toretto, Canova found himself once more on the point of being established in the workshop of Pasino, and to all appearance doomed to irksome toil, and to the obscurity of his native village. The Falier family were at that time absent from Asola, and Canova had no other friends capable of advancing his interests. But the dejection which naturally clouded his young and ardent mind at such a prospect, was suddenly changed into transports of joy, in consequence of an invitation from his benevolent patron to repair immediately to Venice, to consider the Falier palace as his home, and to trust to his friends there for everything which concerned his education and maintenance.

The frontispiece which adorns our article represents a group in the monument of the Archduchess Maria Christina, wife of Prince Albert of Saxony. The monument was executed in 1805, when Canova was at the height of his fame. It was justly considered as one of the finest conceptions of his mind, and, as such, will be particularly described in a future article. The group in question represents Benificence supporting an aged and infirm old man, and ascending the steps leading to the tomb. A funeral wreath unites this group with the rest of the procession.

THERE is not a more gloomy study than the history of the concluding scenes of Roman greatness. Nearly all ages and sexes appeared to contend with each other in the rapidity of their descent down the steep of vice. Under the emperors, tyranny and crime, in all their flagitious and appalling aspects; every suspicion that could embitter existence, and loosen the bonds of society; every hateful sentiment, and every baneful passion, had pervaded the unwieldy empire. The history oppresses our mind like a frightful dream: it is hard not to associate the notion of external gloom with the moral ruin, and clothe the face of nature with the dismal hue, the sullen stillness of a gathering storm; we seem to behold the coming "planetary plague,"

When Jove

Shall o'er some high-iced city hang his poison  
In the sick air.

In the descriptions of their gorgeous splendour, and their baleful revolutions, their joys appear like demoniac wildness; their sobriety, the broodings of conspiracy or fear. To pursue inquiry through such ages would be useless; the manners of a people sinking into ruin from their own corruption, will never be appealed to, either for evidence of what is natural, or authority for what is useful.—*Woman's Rights and Duties.*



## ON CHESS.

## ORIGIN AND ANTIQUITY OF THE GAME.

## II.

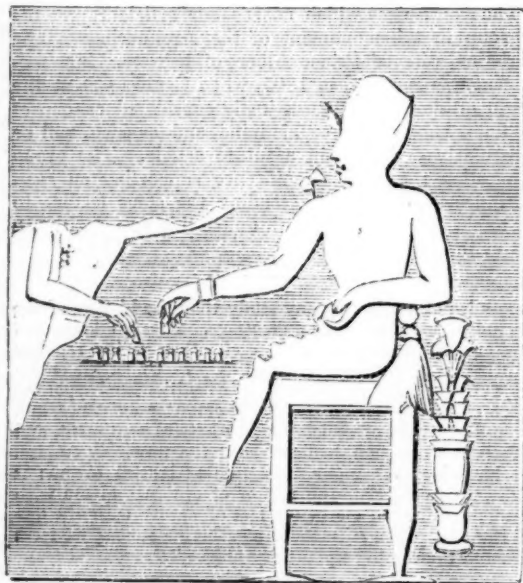
It has been supposed that the ancient Egyptians were acquainted with chess, or at least with a game bearing some close affinity therewith. Very slight inquiry, however, is sufficient to show that the game represented on the Egyptian monuments is nothing more than a species of draughts. The players are represented sitting on the ground, or on chairs, and the pieces, or men, being ranged in rank, at either end of the table, were probably moved on a chequered board; but, the game being always represented in profile, the exact appearance, or the number of the squares, cannot be given.

The pieces were all of the same size and form, though they varied on different boards, some being small, others large, with round summits: many were of a lighter and neater shape, like small nine-pins,—probably the most fashionable kind, since they were used in the palace of King Remeses. These last seem to have been about one inch and a half high, standing on a circular base of half an inch in diameter; and one in my possession, which I brought from Thebes, of a nearly similar taste, is one inch and a quarter in height, and little more than half an inch broad at the lower end. It is of hard wood, and was doubtless painted of some colour, like those occurring on the Egyptian monuments.

They were all of equal size upon the same board, one set black, the other white or red, standing on opposite sides; and each player, raising it with the finger and thumb, advanced this piece towards those of his opponent; but though we are unable to say if this was done in a direct or diagonal line, there is reason to believe they could not take backwards, as in the Polish game of draughts, the men being mixed together on the board.

It was an amusement common in the houses of the lower classes, and in the mansions of the rich; and King Remeses is himself portrayed on the walls of his palace at Thebes engaged in the game of draughts\*.

We copy the following figure from BURTON'S *Excerpta Hieroglyphica*.



The modern Egyptians have a game of draughts very similar, in the appearance of the men, to that of their ancestors, which they call *dameh*, and play much in the same manner as our own.

The most impartial authorities are strongly inclined to favour the assumption that chess was originally invented in India, and thence transmitted to the nations of Europe, by means of the Persians and Arabs. The

\* WILKINSON'S *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians*.

instruments of its introduction to the western world are generally supposed to have been the crusaders; but as this supposition necessarily excludes all knowledge of the game previous to the year 1100, it is liable to very formidable objections.

An eastern historian informs us that the game was known at Constantinople in the year of our Lord 802. At that period the Emperor Nicephorus began his reign, and made a pointed allusion to the game of chess in an epistle to the Caliph Haroun al Raschid. "The queen," said he, speaking of Irene, the mother of Constantine, "to whom I have succeeded, considered you as a *rook*, and herself as a *pawn*. That pusillanimous female submitted therefore to pay to thee a tribute, the double of which she ought to have exacted from thyself." The game being thus familiar at Constantinople at that early period, it is extremely probable that the knowledge of it was speedily transmitted to other parts of Europe; and the intercourse maintained between the courts of Constantinople and France renders it extremely probable that the latter kingdom was one of the first, if not the very first, in Western Europe, to become acquainted with chess. It is singularly confirmative of this supposition that a set of ivory chess-men, of great antiquity, are still preserved in the Cabinet of Antiquities, in the Bibliothèque du Roi, at Paris, and that in the history of the Abbey of St. Denis, where they were formerly deposited, there should be found the following notice:—"L'Empereur & Roy de France, Saint Charlemagne, a donné au Thésor de Saint Dénys un jeu d'eschets, avec le tablier, le tout d'ivoire: iceux eschets hauts d'une pauline, fort estimez; le dit tablier et une partie des eschets ont esté perdus par succession de temps, et est bien vray semblable qu'ils ont esté apportez de l'Orient, et sous les gros eschets il y a des caractères Arabesques." The dresses and ornaments of the two principal figures in this set are declared by Sir F. Madden to be in strict keeping with the costume of the Greeks in the ninth century, so that, having examined the engravings given of the king and queen, he is persuaded that these chess-men really belong to the period assigned to them by tradition, and believes them to have been executed at Constantinople, by an Asiatic Greek, and sent as a present to Charlemagne, either by the Empress Irene, or by her successor Nicephorus. Embassies were frequently despatched by the Frankish monarch to the court of Constantinople, and that sort of friendly intercourse was maintained which increases the probability of the above supposition. The size and workmanship of the chess-men prove them to have been designed for the use of some noble personage, and from the decided style of Greek art visible in the figures, it is inferred that they came to Charlemagne from a sovereign of the Lower Empire, and were not the gift of the Moorish princes of Spain, or even from the Caliph Haroun al Raschid, whose costly gifts to the Emperor of the West are particularly described by German historians.

The old French romances abound with references to the game of chess, in the time of Charlemagne. In one of these, called *Guerin de Montglave*, the whole story turns upon a game of chess, at which Charlemagne lost his kingdom to Guerin, the latter having proposed a game at which the stake was to be the kingdom of France. Another romance, describing the arrest of Duke Richard of Normandy, says that he was playing at chess with Ivonnet, son of Regnaut, and the officers came up to him, saying,—"*Aryse up, Duke Rycharde; for in despite of Charlemayne, that loveth you so much, ye shall be hanged now*" "When Duke Rycharde saw that these sergeantes had him thus by the arm, and helde in his hande a lady (*dame*) of ivory, where w<sup>t</sup> he would have given a mate to Yonnet, he withdrew his arme, and gave to one of the sergeantes such a stroke with it into the forehead that he made him tumble over and over at his feet; and then he took a rooke, (*roc*), and smote another

wt all upon his head, that he all to brost it to the brayne."

Instances may be multiplied to disprove the common opinion that chess was not introduced into Europe until after the first crusade. We will quote one more example, and this is from the Epistles of Damiano, Cardinal Bishop of Ostia, who died in 1080. In a letter to Pope Alexander the Second, (1061-1073,) he mentions an incident which occurred between himself and a bishop of Florence.

Whilst we were dwelling together, having arrived in the evening at a resting-place, I withdrew myself to the neighbouring cell of a priest; but he remained with a crowd of people in a large house of entertainment. In the morning my servant informed me that the bishop had been playing at the game of chess; which thing when I heard, it pierced to my heart like an arrow. At a convenient hour I sent for him, and said, in a tone of severe reproof, "The hand is stretched out; the rod is ready for the back of the offender." "Let the fault be proved," said he, "and penance shall not be refused." "Was it well," rejoined I, "was it worthy of the character you bear, to spend the evening in the vanity of chess-play, and defile the hands and tongue which ought to be the mediators between man and the Deity? Are you not aware that, by the canonical law, bishops who are dice-players are ordered to be suspended?" He however, seeking an excuse from the name of the game, and sheltering himself under this shield, suggested that dice were one thing and chess another; consequently that dice alone were forbidden by the canon, but chess tacitly allowed. To which I replied thus,—"Chess is not named in the text, but is comprehended under the general term of dice. Wherefore, since dice are prohibited, and chess is not expressly mentioned, it follows without doubt that both kinds of play are included under one term, and equally condemned." To this the poor prelate could make no reply, and was ordered by his superior, by way of penance for his offence, to repeat the Psalter over thrice, and to wash the feet of, and give alms to, twelve poor persons.

CIRCUMSTANCES are the rulers of the weak; they are but the instruments of the wise.—LOVER.

THE cultivation of the affections comes next to the development of the bodily senses; or rather they may be said to begin together, so early does the infant heart receive impressions.—MRS. CHILD.

A GENTLEMAN of Marseilles, named Remonsat, shortly before his death, desired that his numerous family might be assembled about his bed. He acknowledged the delight which his children had afforded him by their affection and attachment, and especially for the tender love which they bore to one another. "But," continued he, "I have a secret to disclose, which will remove one of you from this circle. So long as I had any hopes of living I kept it from you, but I dare not violate your rights in the division of the property which I leave you. One of you is only an adopted child—the child of the nurse at whose breast my own child died. Shall I name that child?" "No, no," said they with one accord, "let us all continue to be brothers and sisters."

THE Almighty, who gave the dog to be companion of our pleasures and our toils, hath invested him with a nature noble and incapable of deceit. He forgets neither friend nor foe—remembers, and with accuracy, both benefit and injury. He hath a share of man's intelligence, but no share of man's falsehood. You may bribe a soldier to slay a man with his sword, or a witness to take life by false accusation, but you cannot make a hound tear his benefactor. He is the friend of man, save when man justly incurs his enmity.—WALTER SCOTT.

REJECT the society of the vicious; shun the agreeable infidel and the accomplished profligate. Lay it down as a fixed rule, that no brilliancy of connexion, no allurements of rank or fashion, no agreeableness, no wit or flattery, shall tempt you to associate with profligate or openly irreligious men. Make this an absolute rule. It is impossible not to suffer by its neglect. If you do not fall into their vices, still your heart will be estranged from the love of God.—GRESLEY.

## HISTORY OF THE SMALL-POX.

### II.

#### DISCOVERY OF VACCINATION—ITS PROGRESS ON THE CONTINENT—RE-VACCINATION.

THE same century which witnessed the introduction of the practice of small-pox inoculation, also witnessed its utter abandonment; for it was in the year 1798 that Edward Jenner announced to the world his discovery of *vaccination*—the fruits of twenty years' experiment and deliberation. A short biographical sketch of this great and good man has appeared already in the pages of the *Saturday Magazine*; we have no intention of repeating what has already been said, and will therefore confine our notice to some particulars of his life which have relation to his discovery. Jenner was hardly dealt with by his cotemporaries, and he adds another name to the rather numerous list of wise men who have been more honoured in foreign countries than in their own. The posterity of entire Europe, nay, of the entire world, will yet, however, do him ample justice. If the philosophical and persevering pursuit of a laborious and intricate train of inquiry; if a consummate sagacity which explained difficulties with clearness, and anticipated with exactness conclusions which subsequent experience has verified; if the being actuated to this by the most philanthropic disinterestedness, which manifested itself in fervent thanksgiving to Almighty God for having rendered him an instrument of conferring good upon his fellow-men; if these qualities may challenge the admiration and gratitude of the world, then has the discoverer of vaccination an entire right to do so. We say advisedly and emphatically *discoverer*, because it has been foolishly argued that Jenner was not the discoverer of the practice in the proper sense of the word—An exposure of the fallacy of this objection will at once bring us to the history of the subject.

It has been observed, that in different parts of the world, when large numbers of cows had been congregated together, an epidemic disease has appeared among them at irregular and rare intervals. This disease manifests itself by the appearance of pustules, (pimples containing matter,) and especially on the udders of these animals. The disease, from the resemblance it bears to the small-pox in the human subject, has been called the *cow-pox*; indeed, recent experiments have proved that it and small-pox are, as anticipated by Jenner, merely mild and malignant varieties of the same disease. It had long been observed that this disease from the cow was communicable to the hands of the milkers, producing in them a mild and local eruption. Moreover, it had long been popularly observed, in the dairy counties, that persons who had contracted this disease from the cow, were in a remarkable manner exempt from attacks of small-pox. It is therefore true, in the limited acceptance of the term, that Jenner did not discover the protective power of vaccination. But the mere fact, which was passed by unheeded and unimproved by the other medical practitioners in the county where he resided, (Gloucester,) struck his observant mind even in his youth; and, for years and years after, the development of this fact, and its conversion into a means of practical utility, were the grand objects of his life. He devoted some years to the minute observance of the disease in the cows, and among the milkers, and satisfied himself of its true nature, and of the means of distinguishing it from other spurious affections which resembled it. He made no secret of his investigations, and in 1780 he visited London, with the hope of being able to excite the attention of some of the learned men of the metropolis. He there met with little or no encouragement, and was thrown upon his own intelligent perseverance; indeed, at a subsequent period, when he proposed presenting a memoir upon the subject to the Royal Society, he was cautioned

not to risk losing the reputation he had acquired in that body on account of his researches in natural history. He persevered, and in 1796 he vaccinated a child with some matter taken from the hands of a milker; this child was afterwards inoculated for the small-pox, and resisted that disease successfully: he continued his experiments, and in 1798 announced his grand discovery to the world, detailing twenty-three cases of its successful application.

His state of mind, after the first success of his experiments, is thus depicted in his Journal.—He was in the habit of meditating much upon the subject among the meadows adjoining Berkeley Castle.

While the vaccine discovery was progressing, the joy I felt at the prospect before me of being the instrument destined to take away from the world one of its greatest calamities, blended with the fond hope of enjoying independence and domestic peace and happiness, was often so excessive, that in pursuing my favourite subject among the meadows, I have sometimes found myself in a kind of reverie. It is pleasant to me to recollect that these reflections always ended in devout acknowledgments to that Being from whom this and all other mercies flow.

His announcement was received with so much scepticism at first, that no subject could be obtained in London for some months, whereon to demonstrate the experiment. This having at last been satisfactorily accomplished, the practice was soon followed with avidity and precipitation. Mr Cline and other friends urged Jenner to settle in London, assuring him that a large fortune would await him. Attached to the charms of a rural life, and of the most limited desires in point of fortune, he refused. But peace and quiet were no longer to be his portion; from this period all his energies were required, not only to defend vaccination from the attacks of interested opponents, but, in a far greater degree, from the exaggerated and indiscriminate view of it taken by many of its supporters. Forgetting the laborious investigations Jenner had gone through, and the rules he had laid down for the adoption of the practice, numbers, believing the operation to be much simpler than it is, by neglecting the requisite precautions, propagated an affection resembling, but less protective than, the true one. A calamitous event of this kind occurred at the Small-pox Hospital, where, by inadvertency, the true vaccine virus became contaminated with small-pox matter, and in this state was distributed over the country and abroad, giving rise to inefficient protection and much disappointment. Dr. Jenner was unceasing in endeavouring to correct these errors, and in spreading correct ideas upon the subject; but in many of his professional rivals he found much evil spirit and obstinacy that disheartened him, and he obtained much more efficient assistance from non-professional persons, especially ladies, who were not too self-sufficient to listen to and follow the instructions of a man who had devoted his life to the inquiry. The repeated blunders which occurred, and the conduct of some who wished to divert all the honour and emolument of the practice to themselves, at last obliged him to repair to the metropolis.

Vaccination extended most rapidly, in that forming a remarkable contrast to the history of inoculation. As early as 1799 the Duke of York, seeing the great importance of the practice, caused its general adoption in the army, and both he and his brother, our late king, were always warm patrons of the practice. By 1801 6000 persons had been vaccinated in England, and most of them tested with the small-pox.

It is remarkable that the practice was received with much more avidity, and much more abundantly employed on the Continent than in the country of its birth. Dr. De Carro most extensively introduced it throughout Germany, and Dr. Sacco, in Italy, in eight years vaccinated himself 600,000 patients, and by deputy 700,000 others. Vaccination was introduced into Russia by the

empress-mother, who presented Jenner with a handsome diamond, and wrote an excellent letter to him. The first child vaccinated was called Vaccinoff, and was pensioned for life. In Sweden and Denmark it was soon adopted, and rendered compulsory, with the happiest effect. Owing to our unfortunate differences with France, the vaccine matter was not introduced into that country until 1800, when it was adopted with enthusiasm. After the practice was introduced into Spain, Dr. Balmis obtained from the queen a commission to extend the blessing to all the Spanish colonies in Asia and America; and a well-appointed expedition, having on board a number of young children, in order to keep up the supply of matter, circumnavigated the globe, not for the purpose of effecting bloody conquests, or introducing among uncivilized nations corrupt manners, but for diffusing the antidote to the greatest bane of those portions of the human race. It was conveyed to the United States in 1799, and thence gradually to the native Indians. Jenner was most anxious to transmit the virus to the East, wherein the small-pox raged with virulence; but failure after failure occurred, until, by the ingenuity of De Carro, it was enclosed in wax balls, and conveyed to Bombay, by way of Constantinople, and quickly diffused over India. The Marquis of Wellesley exerted himself actively in its propagation, and in removing the prejudices which many of the Hindoos felt against it, from its originating with the cow. We will not pursue farther the detail of the progress of vaccination; suffice it to say, that in little more than six years it became diffused over the habitable globe.

The effects of this extensive diffusion were striking and satisfactory. In many countries small-pox was infinitely diminished in frequency and mortality, and in others seemed to be exterminated. Ceylon resembled formerly a deserted place, after an epidemic of small-pox, and Dr. Christie states, that on the most moderate calculation, the small-pox swept off one sixth of the population. After the introduction of the vaccine by the English, in 1800, the mortality from this source became trifling. In Sweden and Denmark, by 1805, it seemed entirely subdued. In the district of Anspach, in Bavaria, out of a population of 300,000, only six deaths from small-pox occurred in 1809, and from thence to 1818 only one; while in the contiguous state of Wurtemburgh, in which the precautions were more lax, the disease raged epidemically in 1814-17. In the epidemic at Berlin, in 1823, only five persons died, while in one prior to the introduction of vaccine, 1600 persons perished.

In concluding this article it may be desirable to present a slight sketch of the present state of vaccination. For several years after its introduction it was believed to be a complete preventive of the small-pox, and Jenner fondly hoped that the disease would by its means become exterminated. Further experience has, however, shown that small-pox does occasionally occur after vaccination, and, although the disease so produced is usually rendered much milder, yet has death even sometimes resulted. The small-pox, too, which for the first ten or twelve years after the introduction of vaccination was much subdued, has of late years broken out again with violence, and although its ravages have been much less extensive than heretofore, and chiefly fallen upon the unprotected, yet has much alarm been thereby excited. It is true that where vaccination has least extended, the disease has raged most; thus, Ireland has suffered from this cause less than England, and portions of this latter country, in which vaccination has been well attended to, have received an entire immunity. So, too, in the army and navy the prevalence of the disease has been very much diminished. Still, in countries, as Sweden, Russia, Italy, Ceylon, in which vaccination had been most effectually practised, and in which the small-pox for a while ceased to appear, that disease has of late recurred and



attacked many of the vaccinated, and such cases are on the increase.

The reason of, and remedy for, this diminished protective power of the vaccine virus have occupied much attention of late years, both at home and abroad. Its failure has been attributed by some to the deterioration arising from the matter having passed through so many individuals; but the experience of the Vaccine Board and Small-pox Hospital leads to the opinion that the same virus which has passed from person to person to the number of 1500 or 1600, still produces as active and as protective a disease as at first. This would seem to prevent the necessity of again having recourse to the cow, which however has in some instances of late been done with success. Another reason has been sought in the imperfect manner in which the process of vaccination has often been conducted, and the spurious and only partially protective virus thus diffused. This, as anticipated by Jenner, has led to many evils, and it is even said, that no person vaccinated by him has been known thus to suffer; still its influence has been exaggerated, and the small-pox has undoubtedly frequently occurred in persons who have been vaccinated with the greatest care and with the purest virus. The most generally entertained opinion upon the subject is, that the influence of vaccination is only temporary, and that it requires renewal. Many facts are in support of this opinion, and it has been most extensively acted upon on the Continent. It has been attempted, but with little success, to fix the exact period when the influence thus wears out, in order to determine when *re-vaccination* should be instituted. It would seem, however, that those who have been vaccinated in infancy often re-acquire the susceptibility to small-pox as they approach the period of manhood, and especially when they change the climate to which they have been habituated. The proportion of those in whom vaccination thus loses its influence is not known, but is still very inconsiderable, although on the increase.

In epidemics the small-pox has been found to be resisted by the vaccinated in proportion as they were young, while they became more liable to it as they receded from the period when the operation was performed. So, too, re-vaccination (the success of which has been regarded as evidence of the susceptibility to small-pox being renewed,) has been found to succeed on the adult but not on the child. In the Prussian army 47,000 soldiers were re-vaccinated in 1837, and a full effect resulted in 24,000; not one of these took the small-pox, although it was extensively prevalent. In Wurtemberg 44,248 were re-vaccinated, and only one became affected with the small-pox. In the Grand Duchy of Baden, the small-pox attacked many who had been vaccinated, a decree for universal re-vaccination was issued, and the disease disappeared. Of 216 children re-vaccinated at the Foundling Hospital, only eleven succeeded. At all events, the practice of re-vaccination should be put in force; it is, at least, harmless, and either supplies the valuable information that the protective power of the original vaccination is not worn out, or where this is the case, it renews it.

Even with the qualification that experience has placed upon the degree of benefit to be derived from vaccination, yet it continues one of the greatest boons ever presented to the human race. It must be recollected that the small-pox itself sometimes occurs a second time, as it does also after inoculation; and although, perhaps, it occurs more frequently after even properly performed vaccination, yet the difference is not so great as supposed. But the important fact must be noticed, that while the mortality from the natural small-pox was about twenty-five in the hundred, that where the disease occurs after vaccination, it is but nine. Of the advantages conferred by the practice, the diminished amount of mortality and increased duration of human life testify: thus, while in 1780

the annual mortality was one in forty, in 1821 it was about one in fifty-eight. This is more striking still when applied to children,—the frequent victims heretofore of small-pox. Mr. Edwards states, that prior to the introduction of vaccination, sixty per cent. in London, and forty per cent. in all England died, while, during the twenty years ending with 1830, these numbers have been reduced respectively to thirty and twenty per cent. It is true that the whole improvement cannot be attributed to the diminution of small-pox, but it may be fairly stated, that a large portion of it may, especially as that dreadful disease, even where it did not terminate fatally, laid the seeds for many future maladies. It is a minor, but yet an important consideration, that the amount of personal disfigurement, the loss of eye-sight, &c., from small-pox have immensely diminished. In Great Britain and Ireland, between 40,000 and 50,000 persons were formerly supposed to perish of small-pox, and, in proportion to the increase of population, that number, but for vaccination, would probably now amount to 80,000. In London, wherein the mortality was usually 2000 or 3000 annually, only 277 died in 1827. Through the neglect of vaccination, small-pox has prevailed severely in Great Britain this last year, the number of deaths for six months amounting to 6000.

There is no probability that the disease will be eradicated, but its virulence may be diminished, and its sphere contracted. This will be best brought about by an extensive system of vaccination. No one who has not examined into the subject can imagine the number of unprotected persons yet in this country. Vaccination, adopted almost universally by the wealthy and educated classes, has been opposed by the ignorance, carelessness, indolence, and prejudices of their poorer brethren. It is not until the scourge arrives among them that it is discovered to how great a degree precautions against it have been neglected. Compulsory vaccination would be contrary to the genius and habits of this country, but facilities should be offered with unbounded liberality; and it is with that view that the Vaccination Bill was introduced into Parliament last session by Lord Ellenborough, and is now part of the law of the land. By it gratuitous vaccination is everywhere offered to the poorer classes of the community; but, for its successful carrying out, the advice and persuasions of their more fortunate neighbours will be required, and will, we are persuaded, not be found wanting. Another provision of this bill is the punishment, as a misdemeanour, of the inoculation for the small-pox. The persistence in this injurious practice has tended much to maintain the disease among us, and its prohibition cannot but be of the greatest service.

J. C.

#### AN IMITATION FROM I. KINGS XIX., 11, 12.

HE passed, and his terrors before him were sent,  
Beneath the strong tempest, the mountains were rent;  
It crumbled to pieces the rocks as it passed  
In its strength; but Jehovah was not in the blast.

By internal convulsions her terror expressed,  
The earth the approach of her Maker confessed,  
In the power of the servant, the Master adored,  
For the might of the earthquake contained not the Lord.

The fire of the Lord from his presence has gone,  
With the light of his coming the firmament shone,  
As the smoke of a furnace, the mountain became,  
But the Lord, but Jehovah was not in the flame.

Where then was Thy presence? The earth is all still,  
The elements hushed are subdued to Thy will.  
One still small voice only was heard in that hour,  
When thy prophet adored thee, and worshipped thy power.

F. W. M.

NOTHING can overcome him that is not first overcome by his own imaginations and passions.—BISHOP PATRICK.

## VELVET.

VELVET is one of the most beautiful productions of the silk-loom. It has been known in Europe for several centuries; but the secrets of its manufacture were for a long time confined to some of the chief cities of Italy. From this country the French learned the art, and succeeded in improving it. The revocation of the Edict of Nantes\* brought numerous French refugees to England, about the year 1685, who settled in Spitalfields, and practised the art of weaving velvet.

The reader is probably aware of the process of plain weaving with the common loom. A large number of threads, forming the *length*, or *warp*, of the intended cloth, are wound upon a cylindrical beam or roller, and pass from thence through a *harness*, composed of moveable parts, called *heddles*. Each of these heddles receives its portion of the threads of the warp, and is alternately moved up and down, so that the threads of the warp are alternately raised and lowered. Each time the warp is opened by the separation of its alternate threads, a *shuttle*, containing the *woof*, or transverse thread, is thrown across it, and this thread, being driven into its place by a frame called a *lay*, gradually forms by its repeated crossing the material to be woven. In the weaving of velvet, however, in addition to the warp and woof, there is a soft shag, or pile, produced by inserting short pieces of silk-thread, doubled, under the woof, and these stand up in so large a number, and so compactly, as to conceal the interlacings of the warp and woof which are seen in plain weaving. This silky pile imparts to velvet its peculiar softness to the touch, as well as beauty to the eye; but the production of these results depends in great measure upon the uniform evenness of the pile. To insure this latter quality, it is necessary to have all the threads of the pile of equal length, which requires some skill, and much patient attention on the part of the weaver.

In weaving velvet, the loom is first prepared as in the ordinary process of plain weaving: another set of threads is then prepared to go in the direction of the threads of the warp, which set is kept distinct from the warp by being stretched diagonally as shown in the figure, which



SECTION, EXHIBITING THE STRUCTURE OF VELVET.

represents the structure of velvet, and the plan adopted to combine the threads of the woof with the pile. At *a a*, are the threads of the warp, and the dots placed in the loops show the section of the woof threads: at *b* are the threads intended for the pile, and these threads meet those of the warp in the angle *c*. The weaver places in this angle a brass wire of the same length as the breadth of the piece of woven stuff, so that all the pile threads are above the wire, and those of the warp below it. By the action of the treadles the alternate threads of the warp are raised, the shuttle is thrown, and passes over the pile threads, and the alternate threads of the warp, which are depressed; the batten is then made to strike up against the woof, the interlacing of the warp and woof is effected, and a loop of the pile thread is formed over the wire as at *d d*. It is necessary to pass the shuttle thrice between each insertion of the wire: the thread for the first woof is coarser than that employed for the other two, and the action of the batten forces the wire into its proper position. The upper part of this wire has a groove running along it: by means, therefore, of a sharp-edged tool, called a *trevat*, passed along the groove, the loops *d d* are divided, the wire is liberated, the pile is formed as at *e e*, and thus the process of weaving velvet is completed.

The weaver, however, finds it necessary to employ

two wires, one of which remains in the texture, while the other is cut out: the reason for this is, that the pile threads may not be liberated and the whole process deranged; but as one wire is secured by the threads of the woof, the pile threads are prevented from being set at liberty while the loops are being cut. As soon as the wire is liberated from the first loop *d*, it is again inserted in the angle *c*; and when it has been secured as before, the wire forming the second loop *d* in the figure, but now the first loop, is cut out, and so on alternately. At one time the richest velvets were formed of thirty-eight loops to the inch, but this beautiful substance, velvet, has been so much in demand, and persons are willing to pay such high prices for the richest productions, that now as many as fifty-five loops are woven into an inch of velvet. This circumstance will enable the reader to form some idea of the extremely tedious process of velvet-weaving. The wire requires to be inserted and cut out again fifty-five times in the space of an inch, that is, a strip of velvet one inch broad, and whose length is equal to that of the breadth of the piece. And when we consider that the threads of the woof are of different degrees of fineness, rendering two shuttles necessary, which must be exchanged at frequent but unequal intervals, we can form an estimate of the incessant care and vigilance necessary on the part of the weaver in conducting these various operations. Much caution and dexterity, too, are required in cutting the loops: for however simple the operation of passing a knife along a straight edge may appear, yet this part of the process can only be acquired by long practice; for the smallest deviation from the straight line would injure the appearance of the velvet. The weaver being thus occupied in so many distinct operations in rapid succession, finds his work to increase very slowly, and he has been very industrious if at the end of a long day's work he has woven a yard of plain velvet.

It will be seen from what we have stated that the richness of velvet depends upon the number of threads forming the pile: the degrees of richness are accordingly indicated in this way, and the manufacturer speaks of velvet of two, four, or six threads, according to the number of the pile threads inserted. The striped velvet, with which waistcoats are sometimes made, is produced by leaving uncut a number of the pile loops.

The peculiarly rich effect of velvet results from the absorption of the light which falls upon its surface, and hence too arises the sombre effect when much of this substance meets the eye.

A room hung round with black cloth or velvet, and a coffin, on which is shed the light of wax-tapers, is an impressive spectacle. The light falling upon the cloth or velvet, is absorbed; and the feeling of gloom arises from the circumstance that nothing seems to reflect light. Whereas, in a room, whose sides are covered with mirrors, reflecting the various lights; where music and merry voices mingle in concert, how different is the scene! Even in the absence of human beings, and especially happy and innocent ones, whose presence blesses and enlivens almost every scene, the room yet appears cheerful, in consequence of the abundance of reflected light, the absence or absorption of which, is, in general, attended by a gloomy prospect.—TOMLINSON'S *Student's Manual of Natural Philosophy*.

It should be impressed on the minds of persons in general that those plants which afford the most efficacious medicine in the hands of the skilful practitioner, are the most dangerous in those of the ignorant, and should therefore never be used as a domestic remedy.—PHILLIPS.

ENDEAVOUR yourself to do good to all men, and never speak evil of them that be absent.—SIR THOMAS SMITH.

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\* See *Saturday Magazine*, vol. xvii., p. 36.